

Historical Essay

The Napoleonic Era and Its Lessons

Read at the

International Historical Congress

Held at

Zaragoza, Spain, October 14, 1908

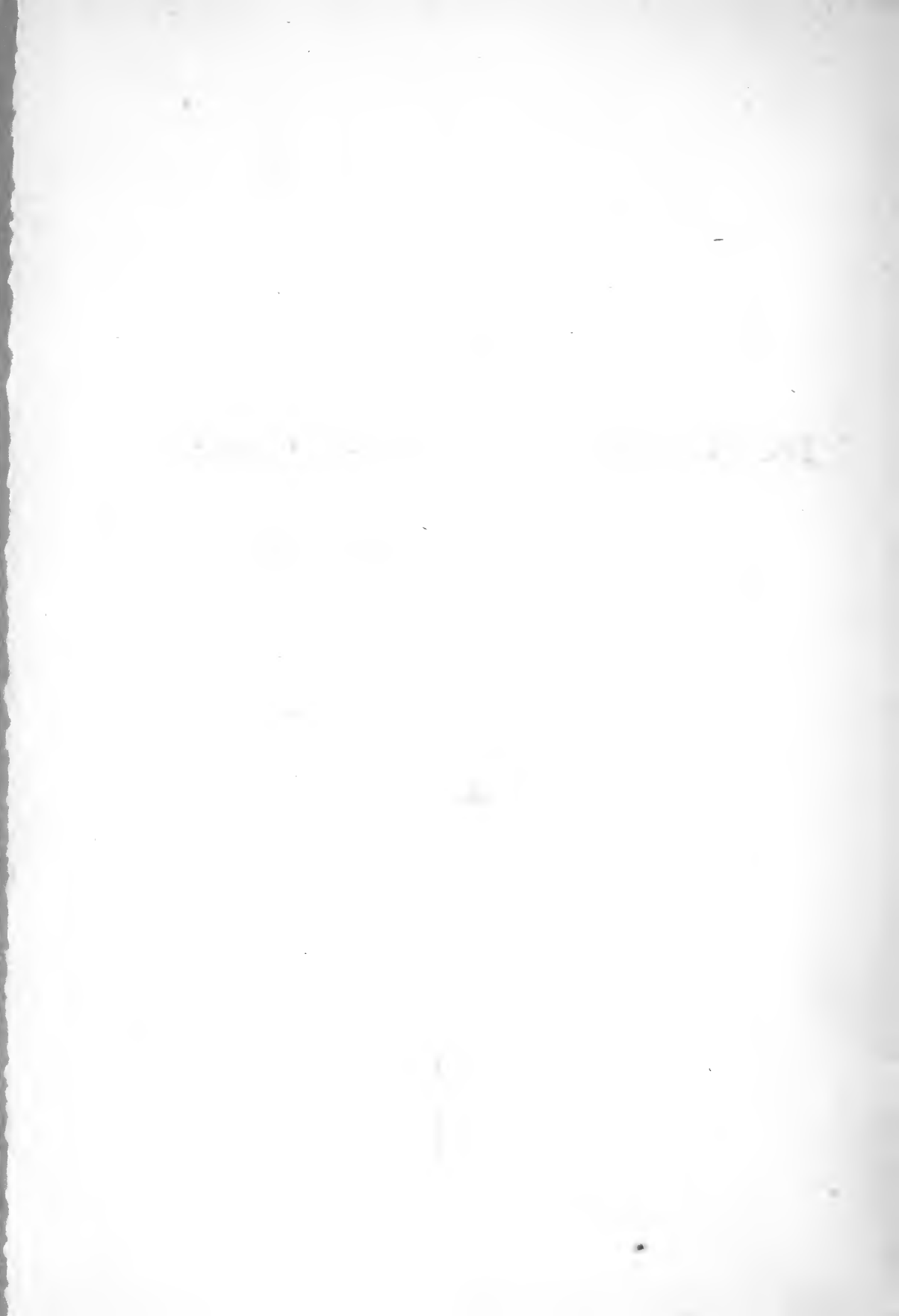
**To Celebrate the Centenary of Spanish Independence
from Napoleon I**

BY

JAMES THE GRÆME ARBUCKLE



Souvenir of Friendship
from the Author



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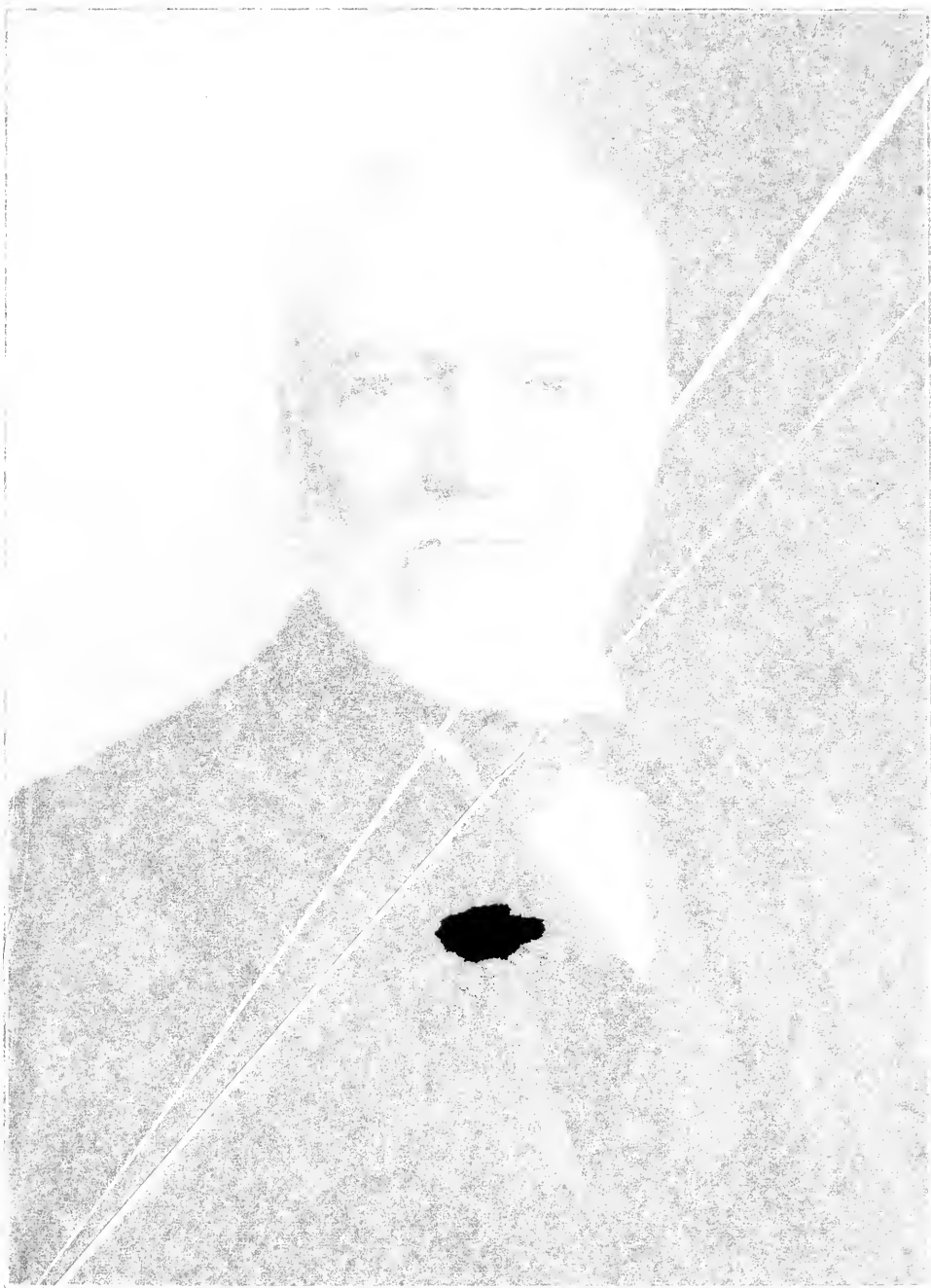
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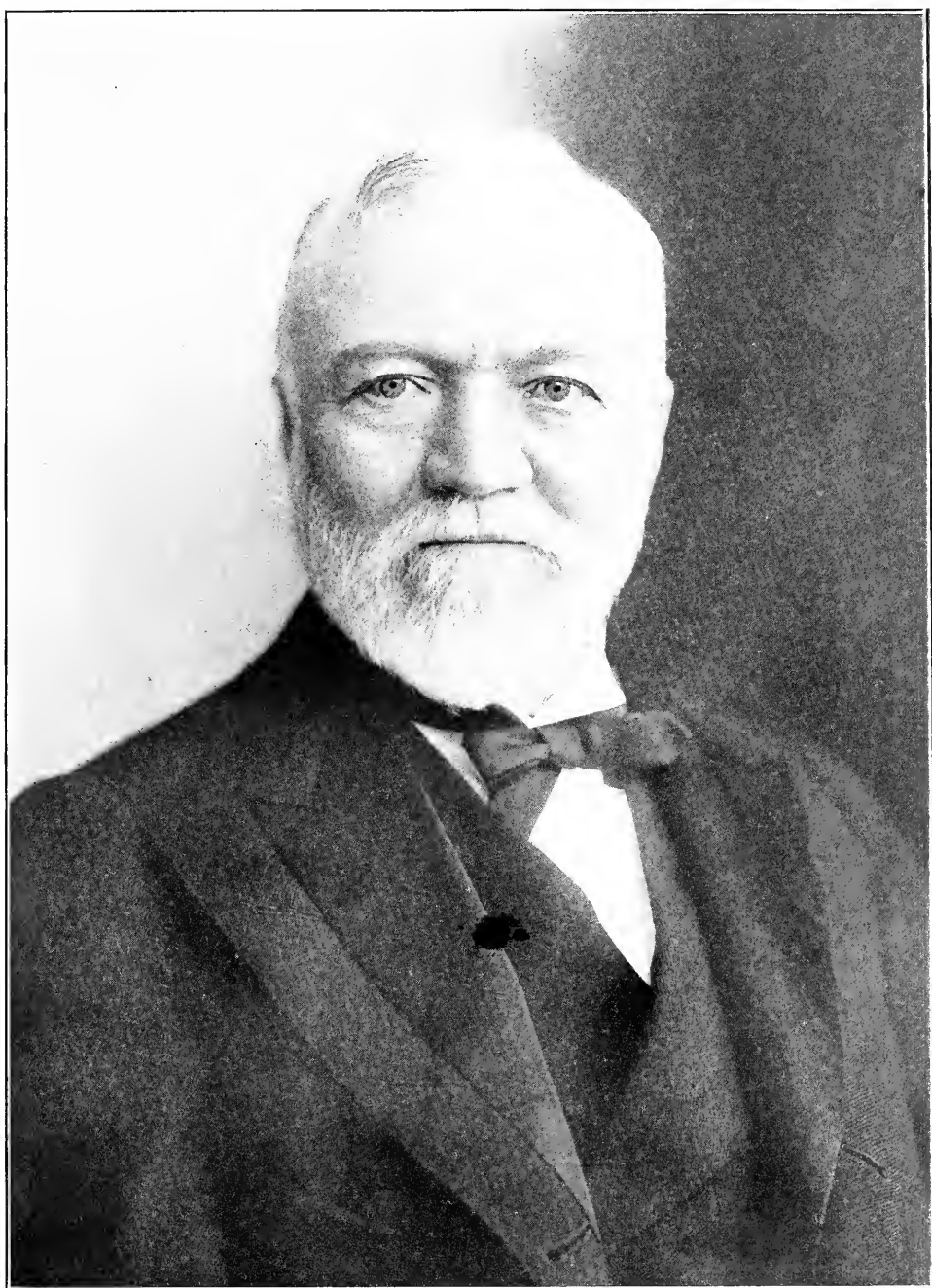
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Arthur Carnegie

My friend to Jane, I think





Andrew Carnegie
To My Friend & Son, Arthur



By transfer

OCT 22 1913

PREFACE AND INSCRIPTION



IN INSCRIBING this essay to my countryman, Honorable Andrew Carnegie, it is with especial pride that I do so, in that he has cast lustre on our country by his many and great benefactions. One can hardly realize that so much could be achieved in one short life. And to illustrate his simple, unaffected manner, I will tell this story about this illustrious man.

I was invited as a delegate from St. Louis to his first great Peace Congress, at New York, and after the first session he was receiving the congratulations of some distinguished people, foreign and local, for the successful opening. Mrs. Arbuckle and I were on the platform and were about the last to be received by him. I had known him but my wife had never met him, and when I introduced her to him he smiled and said the first man that gave him a job in Pittsburgh was a man of her husband's name—James Arbuckle—and asked her what did she think he first received from him in wages. I remarked that, judging from results later, he must have been a very smart boy and probably received an enormous salary. He stated that he had been paid by Mr. Arbuckle the large sum of \$1.25 per week! This was subsequently corroborated by Mr. Arbuckle's son, John Arbuckle—"The Coffee King"—to whom the author was related and who had the honor of knowing him.

For his grand work in the cause of International Peace and Arbitration his name will go down in History

Truly one of the mightiest oaks of the forest started from a small acorn.

INTRODUCTION



IN THE early part of 1908 I was invited by the Committee of Professors of the Zaragoza University to deliver an address before the Great International Historical Congress that was to be held there in October of that year to celebrate the Centenary of Spanish Independence from Napoleon I.

I accepted and wrote a historical essay, which was delivered at the great meeting of assembled Savants, Scientists and Historians from all parts of the world. It was received with applause and appreciation, and the Committee, composed of Messrs. Eduardo Ibarra y Rodriguez and Alvaro de San Pio, who passed upon the papers read before the Congress, recommended to his Majesty, the King of Spain, that I should be decorated for it, and which was accordingly done, and a certificate of same was duly received by me signed by the great statesman Maurer, along with the Medal bearing the impress of General Palafox, the Washington of the struggle for Spanish Independence. On the other side of the Medal was an allegorical figure of Spain.

The Medal was suspended from a silk ribbon, colors of blood and gold, and attached to a gold clasp. It is needless to say that the decoration was prized by me most highly, and I take pleasure in wearing it on state occasions.

Having two grandfathers who campaigned under Wellington, I had always been interested in that era, one of whom—James The Græme Arbuckle of Rutherglen, Scotland—used to “fight his battles” under the great Duke over again, at father’s house, whilst I stood gaping with astonishment and admiration at his wonderful war stories to his cronies. I subsequently read much of that era—Victor Hugo, Allison, Scott and other great writers, with their eloquent recitals of those stirring events.

He was especially fond of recounting the charge of the Scots’ Greys at Waterloo, and where he distinguished himself and secured a medal for his bravery.

It may not be amiss to put on record his version of the great battle that decided so much for Europe. Wellington had been pursuing a Fabian policy, receiving Napoleon's charges of cavalry and infantry until he had worn the brave Frenchmen out.

Late in the afternoon they received the commands of Wellington. The brigade which charged was composed of the Welsh Lancers, Inneskillen Dragoons, and the Scots' Greys. Three crack regiments—no man under six feet tall.

They hewed their way through the old guard and got within 300 yards of Napoleon, when his marshals tore him from the field. This charge was the deciding event of the terrible day, and rendered Wellington still more illustrious, and made his antagonist, the great Corsican, a ruined wanderer, that ended in his surrender to the English and his subsequent exile to the lonely Island of St. Helena.

My maternal grandfather was in the Highland Brigade, campaigned under Wellington through the Peninsular War. He did some feats of unusual bravery at the battle of Salamanca, for which Wellington decorated him. He subsequently went with the Highland Brigade to Egypt, under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and was killed in battle. His sorrowing widow never saw her handsome soldier husband again, and the dear old lady mourned for him many years as she hummed some plaintive old song at her spinning wheel, and she loved to have me come and stay with her as a child, to comfort her in her loneliness.

The interest that I had in those times was therefore natural, and the reason I choose this subject was apropos and agreeable to me, and seemed to please the great International Historical Congress that met at Zaragoza in October, 1908.

CONGRESO HISTÓRICO INTERNACIONAL
DE LA
GUERRA DE LA INDEPENDENCIA
Y SU ÉPOCA (1807-1815)

ZARAGOZA

Zaragoza 8 de Junio de 1908.

OFICINAS: Plaza de Aragón, núm. 7

COMISIÓN ORGANIZADORA

Sr. D. *Elk. James Ashbuckle*

May Sr. mío y de mi consideración más distinguida: próximo a ser publicado el nº del Boletín del Congreso Histórico Internacional de la Guerra de la Independencia y su época le ruego que, si como es de esperar de su ilustración y entusiasmo científico y patriótico, ha de traer al Congreso algún trabajo científico, me envíe cuanto antes sea posible el título del mismo, a fin de dárselo á conocer á los demás Sres. Congressistas.

Igualmente le ruego que me envíe cuantas proposiciones juzgue convenientes para la mejor organización del Congreso, á fin de someterlas á la Junta Organizadora y dar cuenta de ellas en el próximo número del Boletín.

Dándole las gracias anticipadas queda suyo affmo. amigo y s.s.

q. l. b. l. m.

El Presidente de la Comisión organizadora

Eduardo Ibarra
Rodríguez



LEGACION DE ESPANA
WASHINGTON.

29th. March, 1909

Hon. James Arbuckle,

Vice-Consul for Spain,

S t . L o u i s , M o .

Sir:-

I am in receipt of your favour of the 24th. instant, informing me that you have been awarded by the Spanish Government a diploma and medal in recognition of your literary contribution to the International Historical Congress of Zaragoza, and I hasten to congratulate you on this high and well deserved mark of distinction.

Regarding the medal, I am writing under this date to the proper department, making the necessary inquiries, and as soon as I receive an answer, it will give me pleasure to transmit it to you.

I am, Sir,

Yours very truly,

M. Pina y Nieto
Minister of Spain.

CONGRESO HISTORICO INTERNACIONAL

DE LA.

GUERRA DE LA INDEPENDENCIA

Y SU ÉPOCA (1807-1815)

ZARAGOZA 9 de Abril de 1909

Oficinas: INDEPENDENCIA, 32, 2.º izqda.

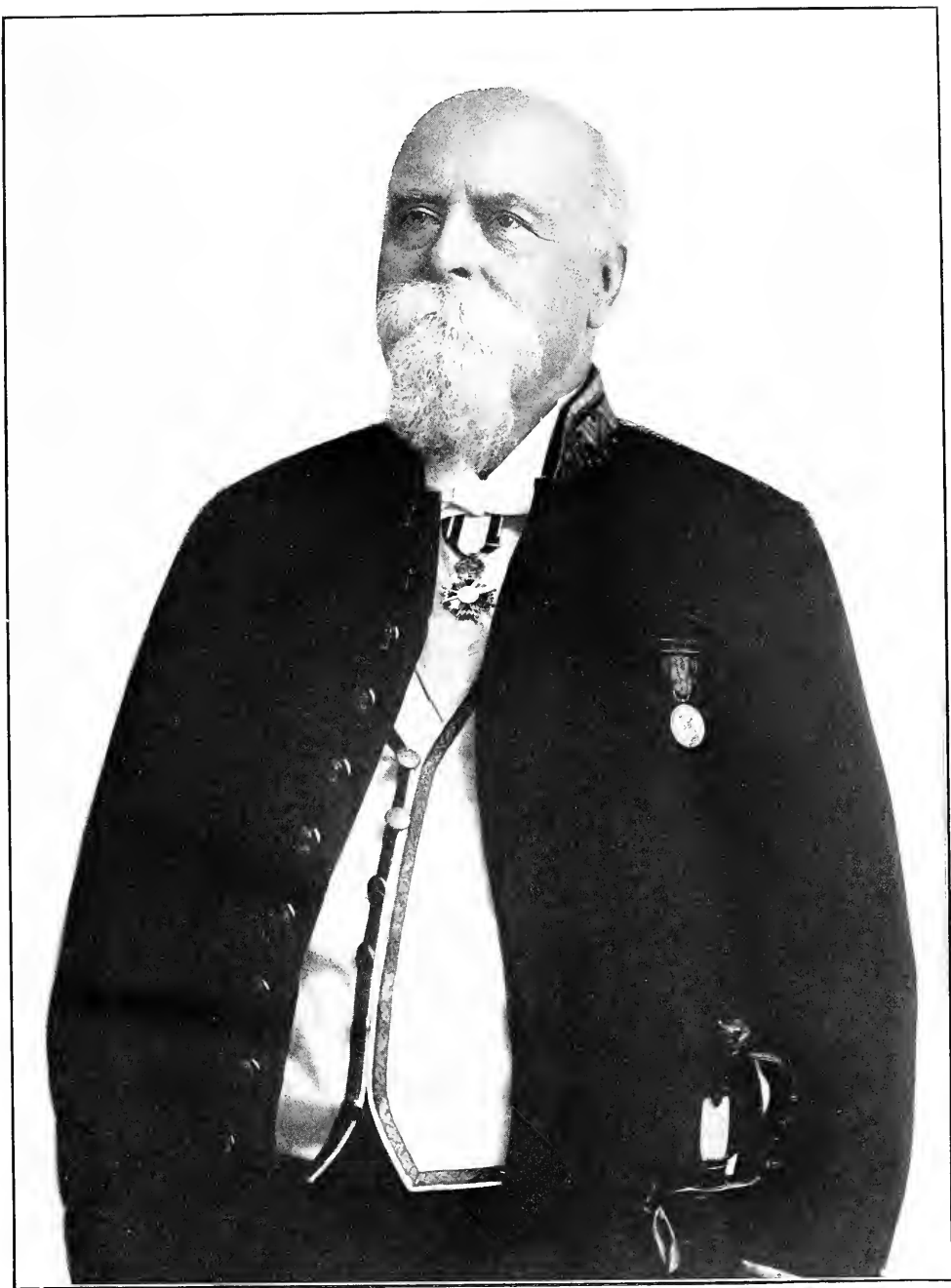
COMISIÓN EJECUTIVA

M^r. J^o. Arbuckle

Distinguido Sr. y compañero: El Sr. Presidente del Congreso, acaba de recibir su correspondencia de 23 de Marzo en ocasión en q^e tiene q^e aumentarse a presentarle una oposición a estecha de Universalidad y me encargo participe la Vd. q^e la Comisión Ejecutiva del Congreso es la q^e ha tenido verdadera satisfacción en q^e la propuesta q^e hizo de Vd. para la condecoración del Centenario haya sido aprobada, habiendo justicia a sus reconocer méritos y carinos a esta patria por la q^e han de llamado generosamente su sangre, sus antepasados.

La Comisión Ejecutiva del Congreso no envía las medallas. La de platin q^e a Vd. corresponde, puede encargarla al Sr. Faci-Plateria, calle de D. Alfonso Zaragoza, enviando su importe 9'50 pts. o si Vd. lo prefiere sal q^e tiene el honor de escribir a Vd. que es el tesoro del Congreso y q^e le envía un respetuoso saludo

Alonso de San José



JAMES THE GRÆME ARBUCKLE

Decorated by H. M. the King of Spain with the Medal of Zaragoza, 1908.
Created by H. M. Knight of the Royal Order of Izabella the Catholic, 1910.
Presented with Medal of Honor by the St. Louis World's Fair, 1904.



CHAPTER I.

THE CONDITION OF EUROPE IN THE XVIII CENTURY.



EUROPE with its feudalism had witnessed some fearful tragedies in the efforts of the French people to throw off the yoke of absolutism and autocracy in the days of Louis XVI.

The "Rights of Man," as depicted by Voltaire and Rousseau, had captivated the thought and imagination of the leaders of the French revolution.

The tyranny of rulers and the apathetic policy of the Church seemed to keep the common masses of the people of continental Europe in utter bondage and ignorance. The only countries wherein the common people were making progress in education and material conditions were those of Northern Europe, Great Britain, one or two of the Scandinavian Nations, Holland and Prussia to a certain extent under the enlightening influences which the Protestant Reformation had given.

The great wealth that Spain had received from her American colonies went into the Royal coffers, but had not, to any extent, been of advantage to the people in general.

Her sons who had gone out to the New World had doubtless been benefited by the exchange and become enlightened by the transatlantic discoveries and experiences.

ITALY and her various sovereigns and people were in comparative darkness and poverty.

AUSTRIA, the great germanic power as she then was, had made some efforts for the education and elevation of her people.

Joseph II of Austria seemed desirous to follow the example of Frederick of Prussia as a reformer and military hero. His various schemes of reform as well as his personal merits had given him some reputation, at the same time they resulted in no lasting good, and his measures taken for the suppression of the religious orders and appropriation of their revenues for the State was unprincipled and unjust, and only served to render the latter part of his reign unsatisfactory, and under the change to the reactionary influences of the Church his people lost the opportunities of advancement which they at one time possessed.

RUSSIA, who had gained much in her last struggle with the Turks, seemed disposed to let European questions alone, and she was chiefly occupied in increasing her boundaries from the barbarous neighbors on her eastern and southern lines.

Her people had no opportunity of ever considering the question of representative government, and she remains a strictly autocratic country and her people a nation of ignorant serfs.

GREAT BRITAIN, who had made peace at Versailles after the long and exhaustive war with her American Colonies and with France and Spain, her commerce and finances disorganized and general depression of business, was disposed for permanent peace, to give her commerce a chance to regain its pre-eminence throughout the world.

PRUSSIA, who had gained much prestige and territory under the great Frederick, required time to consolidate the many detached portions of his kingdom so recently acquired. He was philosopher enough to see also the signs of the times, in the general desire of the common people of Europe for freedom and constitutional government.

The success of the American Colonies had given a formidable impetus to republican principles and were having a powerful influence in shaping the thought of Continental Europe.

SPAIN was equally exhausted in the struggle with England as an ally of France. The great expense which she was put to try and regain the Pillar of Hercules—Gibraltar—and its unsuccessful result, discouraged her statesmen to make any further effort at the time. The Bourbon relationship between the two royal families of France and Spain had much to do with this alliance and the great sacrifices which she made in this struggle.

FRANCE, who had made war on England, and in aid of the American Colonies, exhausted her finances in the effort, and this did more than any one circumstance in producing about the revolution.

Her army came back proud of their achievements in America, in helping to establish the Republic of the United States and dissolve the bonds from their mother country—Great Britain.

Military glory had always been the French nation's pride, and whilst it gratified its people, it added still more to the financial difficulties in which the nation was enmeshed, and which all of Necker's genius for finances could not unravel and correct.

The fact that the army were freeing a people who were to be thereafter self-governed awoke new ideas and thoughts of freedom which afterwards burst into flame in the contending factions of Jacobins and Girondists.

The Nobility of France had long been under the degenerating effects of idleness and luxury. They enjoyed the immunities of the State from taxation and other privileges which the citizens generally regarded as unjust, and as taxation had grown to a ruinous rate, the views of the French nation underwent a most radical change.

The many efforts of regeneration, aided as they were by a Prince distinguished for amability and sagacity but sadly lacking in boldness, seemed only to arise to fail in the execution.

CHAPTER II.

CONDITION OF THE CHURCH.



HE CONDITION of the Church at that period was equally involved in the general desintegration of the Throne and nobility and loyalty of the people.

It had not kept pace with the progress and enlargement of the human understanding, but it had grown old and permitted the cobwebs of superstition to interlace its doctrines and formula.

Many of the chief clergy had even ceased to take a vital interest in their profession.

As a distinguished historian said—

“The Catholic Church had grown old, and unfortunately did not possess the means of renovating her doctrines or improving her constitution so as to keep pace with the enlargement of the human understanding. The lofty claims to infallibility which she had set up and maintained during the Middle Ages, claims which she could neither renounce nor modify, now threatened in more enlightened times, like battlements too heavy for the foundation, to be the means of ruining the edifice they were designed to defend.

“Vestigia nulla retrorsum continued to be the motto of the Church of Rome. She could explain nothing, soften nothing, renounce nothing, consistently with her assertions of impeccability. The whole thrash, which had been accumulated for ages of darkness and ignorance, whether consisting of extravagant pretensions, incredible assertions, absurd doctrines, which confounded the understanding, or puerile ceremonies, which revolted the taste, were alike incapable of being explained away or abandoned. It would certainly have been (humanely speaking) advantageous, alike for the Church of Rome and for Christianity in general, that the former had possessed the means of relinquishing her extravagant claims, modifying her obnoxious doctrines, and retrenching her superstitious ceremonial, as increasing knowledge showed the injustice of the one and the absurdity of the other. But this power she dared not assume; and hence, perhaps, the great schism which divides the Christian world, which might otherwise never have existed, or at least not in its present extended and embittered state. But, in all events, the Church of Rome, retaining the spiritual empire over so large and fair portion of the Christian world, would not have been reduced to the alternative of either defending propositions which, in the eyes of all enlightened men, are altogether untenable, or of beholding the most essential and vital doctrines of Christianity confounded with them, and the whole system exposed to the scorn of the infidel. The more enlightened and better informed part of the French nation had fallen very generally into the latter extreme.

“Infidelity, in attacking the absurd claims and extravagant doctrines of the Church of Rome, had artfully availed herself of those abuses, as if they had been really a part of the Christian religion; and they whose credulity could not digest the grossest articles of the papist creed, thought themselves entitled to conclude, in general, against religion itself, from the abuses engrafted upon it

by ignorance and priestcraft. The same circumstances which favored the assault tended to weaken the defense. Embarrassed by the necessity of defending the mass of human inventions with which their Church had obscured and deformed Christianity, the Catholic clergy were not the best advocates even in the best of causes; and though there were many brilliant exceptions, yet it must be owned that a great part of the higher orders of the priesthood gave themselves little trouble about maintaining the doctrines or extending the influence of the Church, considering it only in the light of an asylum, where, under the condition of certain renunciations, they enjoyed, in indolent tranquility, a state of ease and luxury.

"Those who thought on the subject more deeply were contented quietly to repose the safety of the Church upon the restrictions on the press, which prevented the possibility of free discussion. The usual effect followed; and many who, if manly and open debate upon theological subjects had been allowed, would doubtless have been enabled to winnow the wheat from the chaff, were, in the state of darkness to which they were reduced, led to reject Christianity itself, along with the corruptions of the Romish Church, and to become absolute infidels instead of reformed Christians.

"Religion cannot exist where immorality generally prevails, any more than a light can burn where the air is corrupted; and accordingly, infidelity was so general in France as to predominate in almost every rank of society. The errors of the Church of Rome, as we have already noticed, connected as they are with her ambitious attempts towards dominion over men, in their temporal as well as spiritual capacity, had long become the argument of the philosopher and the jest of the satirist, but in exploding these pretensions and holding them up to ridicule, the philosophers of the age involved with them the general doctrines of Christianity itself; nay, some went so far as not only to deny inspiration, but to extinguish, by their sophistry, the lights of natural religion, implanted in our bosoms as a part of our birthright. Like the disorderly rabble at the time of the reformation (but with infinitely deeper guilt) they not only pulled down the symbols of idolatry, which ignorance or priestcraft had introduced into the Christian Church, but sacrilegiously defaced and desecrated the altar itself. This work the philosophers, as they termed themselves, carried on with such an unlimited and eager zeal as plainly to show that infidelity, as well as divinity, hath its fanaticism. An envenomed fury against religion and all its doctrines; a promptitude to avail themselves of every circumstance by which Christianity could be misrepresented; an ingenuity in mixing up their opinions in works, which seemed the least fitting to involve discussions; above all, a pertinacity in slandering, ridiculing and vilifying all who ventured to oppose their principles, distinguished the correspondents in this celebrated conspiracy against a religion which, however it may be defaced by human inventions, breathes only that peace on earth and good will to the children of men, which was proclaimed by Heaven at its divine origin."

Infidelity had become therefore rampant in France and this loss of confidence and respect for the Church hurried the general dissolution of royalty and the subsequent horrors of the revolution. The Church had always been one of the ramparts of the Throne, but it had ceased to have its influence with the people.

PUBLIC MORALS.

Public morals which in the previous reign, illustrated by the Prince of Orleans and his minions, was at a low ebb. The literature of France was steeped in vice. Even her great philosophers, to which she can always point with pride, Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot and Montesquieu, were not without their faults in this respect.

So much license abounded in society, in conversation and manners that it was sure to lead directly to feelings the most inconsistent with manly virtue and patriotism.

With the dissolution of old established conditions there came the period of internal strife and utter confusion amongst parties and leaders. Until the Directory took hold of the helm of State and organizing the army into an offensive condition, it gradually was bringing order out of chaos.

The French people seemed to be proud of having overthrown the old condition of things and had freed themselves into a republic. Her statesmen and press sent out invitations and appeals to the citizens of the surrounding nations to imitate the example of the French republic, and throw off the shackles of their old institutions, throw over their kings and nobility, confiscate the property of the Church and have it divided amongst the masses of the people and let the lower orders be regenerated into a free and enlightened people.

In this propaganda they doubtless had produced more or less effect, as the autocratic Governments felt called upon to ally themselves against the republic.

CHAPTER III.

NAPOLEON'S ERA COMMENCES.



THIS period Napoleon appears upon the stage and showed his precocious genius in the siege of Toulon and in quelling the lawless mobs in the streets of Paris. Circumstances and conditions all seemed to favor the young Commander, and fortune seemed to attend him at every step. Even his setbacks and defeats in Corsica and Egypt did not seem to place him at a disadvantage in France. He was always ready with some new specious project that appealed to the fancy of a people who were always impressed with every new move for military renown.

HIS GENIUS FOR CIVIC ORGANIZATION.

With all that can be said of Napoleon's overambition, he did much for the civic improvement of the French people in instituting an elaborate system of education. He went into the minutest details to give to the people something that has been a lasting benefit to the French nation and reflects credit on his acumen, intelligence and foresight. He had the discernment to employ the best and most talented Chiefs as educators, who gave and organized a school and college system that was surpassed only by Prussia.

In like manner he had the whole legislative proceeding and laws supervised, changed and perfected so that the "Code Napoleon" stands to this day as one of the greatest examples of legal lore and perfection of judicial statements, which some other nations have adopted.

All these civic reforms and achievements went forward co-ordinate with his military and state plans in changing the map of Europe. France looked upon other neighboring nations with a certain amount of pity and contempt, in not freeing themselves from the old order of things into the new state of liberty and democracy.

HIS GREATNESS AS A SOLDIER

In no period of the world's history were such momentous events in war and diplomacy comprised as that embraced in the Napoleonic era.

Here was a soldier whose genius for war and diplomacy surpassed all of the great warriors of ancient, mediæval or modern times. Alexander the Great, Hannibal, Caesar, Charlemagne, or any of the leaders of subsequent history, whilst deserving of mention with this great soldier, could not be compared to this surpassing master of the art of war. Nor was he equally less in the great game of diplomacy and statesmanship.

Had he restrained his ambition and refrained from keeping Europe in a constant ferment, refrained from invading Russia, the terrible disasters of that retreat, the humiliation of Leipsig and the crushing and all-vanquishing blow of Waterloo might have been spared and the lonely prisoner of St. Helena might have had a different fate.

Europe at one period had been the battlefield of the Romans, but Italy now at this period was the battlefield of Europe. The Hapsburgs and Bourbons each contending for supremacy and such a constant and unending struggle which brought the people into a state of wretchedness and weakness.

CHAPTER IV.

HIS ITALIAN CAMPAIGN.



HE FRENCH Directory and Legislature, animated by a spirit and desire to raise the people from the contemplations and reflections on the horrors of the revolution, entered upon the war to liberate Italy.

The brilliant young officer who had acted so gallantly and efficiently at Toulon and in quelling the crisis with the royalists in the streets of Paris, was chosen as the chief of the army, and which brought Napoleon and the French arms so much glory.

The cause of Italy appealed to him on racial grounds, and as he prophetically expressed in his memoirs of St. Helena, "Italy, isolated within its natural limits, separated by the sea and by very high mountains from the rest of Europe, seems called to be a great and powerful nation.

"Unity in manners, language, literature, ought finally, in a future more or less remote, to unite its inhabitants under a single government. Rome is, beyond doubt, the Capital which the Italians will one day choose."

As one of the greatest organizers of the world, this prophesy seems singularly correct on the part of Napoleon, and no doubt he awakened those people from their condition of torpor and sleep in which they had lain for centuries. The fact that Italy now shows a rejuvenation and vigor as a united country is no doubt largely attributable to the energetic impetus that he gave to their cause.

His address to the Italian people during that campaign, breathing the spirit of unselfish good for their liberation and freedom, the tyranny of their rulers, done much towards the success of French arms in that brilliant series of victories.

The adulations which he received for his personal bravery manifested at the bridge of Lodi and other critical occasions was already having the effect of unduly exciting his ambition, and the sordid greed and nature of French demands on conquered territory impaired the value of the noble resolves with which he had started out to free Italy, and as expressed in his announcement to the Italian people. Much of this was doubtless due to the importunate demands of the French Directory at Paris, who desired to control as much as possible the course of the war, as well as the terms of peace and settlements.

Napoleon's nature, however, could not long brook delay and control to await advices from Paris, and he began to make terms and settlements in his rapid victorious career, which the Government seemed to gradually adopt as satisfactory, although his dispatches were made to the Directors in rather an imperious and autocratic style, indicating that he was master of the situation.

The marvelous genius which Napoleon developed in the Italian campaign at once lifted him to the rank of the Captain of any age. His initiative recognition of ability in his Generals and their appreciation by him in their rewards for success and rapid advancement in rank, and with the avowed determination of the army and people of France, that as they had been made by the revolution a nation of freemen, they were inspired to free the peoples outside of their frontiers, hence the wonderful bravery evinced throughout the entire campaign, although enduring from time to time the greatest hardships.

Napoleon not only displayed the most marked ability as a warrior of the first order, but he evinced unexcelled genius as a politician and diplomat, and his successes in that line were quite as marked as on the battlefield.

CHAPTER V.

HIS EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN.



HIS DESIRE to control the Mediterranean and the Levant, with Egypt as a way to India, had taken hold of his imagination, and was quite in harmony with the ideas of the Directory and Legislature. As an admirer of Caesar and Alexander the Great, he seemed to be particularly desirous to push his victories in that direction, but the British would not permit him, and he returned from Egypt, disappointing his friends as well as himself, so that his dreams of a great Oriental Empire, with the tricolor of France floating from minarets of Cairo and Hindostan, was for the time being at least put in the background.

FRANCE had lost her prestige entirely in India, and to fail to restore her pre-eminence there was a very serious disappointment to his plans. One of the remarkable features in his volcanic career is, that neither the total destruction of the French fleet by Lord Nelson at Aboukir, nor any other reverse in Egypt and elsewhere seemed to lessen the enthusiasm which greeted him on all occasions by the French people, and the same was true of him with the Italians.

HIS FREEBOOTING.

Such confidence did all this inspire in him, that his interventions in the affairs of Italy, Holland, Switzerland and Spain gave him the airs of a universal dictator, never forgetting at any time laying the most extravagant claims for "prestamos" and blackmail, in which the arch conspirator, Talleyrand, was a past master, and to whom he was greatly indebted in this line of wholesale robbery.

For favors granted to the son-in-law of Charles IV of Spain, in being raised to the dignity of King of Asturias, he secured the territory of Louisiana. His part of the contract—Parma and its dependencies—became afterwards part of the French Republic, in violation of all good faith.

We will not follow him in all his unscrupulous encroachments on the rights and possessions of other nations, as the limits of this paper will not permit, and we will now confine our review somewhat to his movements and policies in Spain as being more germane for our consideration in this Congress.

To meet the extraordinary expenses which his European wars had involved him in, he exacted a colossal tribute from Spain under a threat of sending 80,000 French troops into her country—72 million francs were to be paid into the French exchequer every year by the Government of Spain. Why Spain yielded to such unrighteous demands is one of the incomprehensible questions of an extraordinary period. Better had she have resisted at once and organized her army than temporarized with the tyrant and lose her national pride, and pay dearly for the affront and wrong besides.

The agreement was most unfortunate, as it led to the alliance against England, and the signal defeat of Trafalgar. Had Spain, instead of complying with the unconceivable demands of Napoleon, proposed an alliance with Great

Britain, which at that period would have been most acceptable, a different story might have been told, and the mortification of a proud people to the French occupation been prevented.

The French alliance, as revealed in the treaty of St. Ildefonso, was marked by the most degrading stipulations, and to a proud and sensitive people must have been most galling to many of her statesmen. Spain was required to furnish troops, ships and subsidies for the war against England. She had simply put herself in a vassalage to France, where she would have none of the honors of victory or the gain of territory.

The deceptive manner in which Napoleon, on a specious pretext of dividing up Portugal with Godoy, sent an army under Junot through Spain to take possession and where they were helped by a Spanish Corps, shows that he had ulterior intentions on Spain itself, and soon division after division was sent into Spain on the pretext to keep the communications open.

By one pretext and another, he got possession of the northern tier of fortresses, even to Barcelona. The artifices he resorted to were masterful.

To what a condition of insane inanition had the Court of Madrid come to! The whole scheme at last became apparent that he desired to install his elder brother on the throne of Spain.

With 70,000 of his best troops in the Iberian peninsula at strategical points, he felt that he had the country in his possession, and sent his brother-in-law, Murat, to command the troops.

What occurred at Bayonne in transferring the Crown of Spain and the Indies to Napoleon reads like opera bouffe. The weakness of the Spanish monarch, the treacherous conduct all through this shameful episode, reflects nothing but dishonor on Napoleon's methods. His own confession nearing the end of his life:

"I embarked very badly on the Spanish affair, I confess; the immorality was too patent, the injustice too cynical, and the whole thing wears an ugly look since I have fallen; for the attempt is only seen in its hideous nakedness, deprived of all majesty and of the many benefits which completed my intention."

With Napoleon's conquests, there was something to say in extenuation of his work. He invariably inaugurated reforms after his various conquests, and it is said that this course he desired to follow in the peninsula in order to consolidate the work of conquest, etc. His plans, however, were destined to failure. A gallant and chivalrous people could not and would not stand for the treachery of Bayonne.

Napoleon called his elder brother from the throne of Naples, with the people of which he had become popular from the reforms he had enacted, and had him accept the Crown of Spain.

Joseph was an enlightened ruler and had much of his brother's sagacity in dealing with factions, but now truly, he had come to face a condition of things he was unprepared to cope with.

The natural pride of a brave and gallant people was outraged at a foreigner being imposed upon them as a ruler in so arbitrary a manner.

The disgraceful proceedings at Bayonne so exasperated the populace that a universal and immediate uprising took place throughout the peninsula. True to their Celtic blood, the Basque Provinces were the first to rise and bid defiance to the Frenchmen.

That part of Spain which had defied the ancient Romans and the Moorish swarms came down from their mountain homes—Asturia, Galicia, Leon and Aragon declared war against the conqueror of Europe. The other provinces soon followed, and the country became ablaze with patriotic fervor to free the country from Napoleon's myrmidons.

Great Britain was appealed to, and the extraordinary sight was presented of her becoming an immediate and active ally to the people of Spain instead of being a foe to the Bourbon Government.

The indignation and resentment knew no bounds, in the universal acclaim, to rid the soil of the hated usuper.

Guerilla bands were everywhere cutting off detachments of French troops, and the glorious event of Baylen created a sensation, where French troops had been thought to be invincible, destroyed this illusion and the hardy and brave sons of Northern Spain soon made the invader fear the strength of their courage.

CHAPTER VI.

THE INVINCIBLE WELLINGTON.



THE GLORIOUS chance for Spain now presented itself to aid in her supreme effort to throw off the French yoke and gain her independence.

The Invincible Wellington had landed in the peninsula with a small but select army of British veterans. He at once defeated the French army under Junot, and opened a way to organize the Iberian forces.

The Peninsula was wild with excitement and patriotic resolves, but lacked organization; but no General had greater ability to do this than Wellington. Although his discipline was severe, the confidence he inspired as the "Iron Duke" soon inspired the patriotic troops to gather under his command.

The turn of affairs in the Peninsula and the consequent trouble it gave him, led Napoleon to say at St. Helena: "It was the Spanish ulcer which ruined me."

He had now lost Spain and Portugal and the subsidies which they had so meekly paid him, and which had been to him of great use in prosecuting his continued wars.

In this city in which we now are met rendered its name illustrious by the bravery of its inhabitants in the ever-memorable siege by the French. It has

had many sieges under the Romans, the Moors and the many troubles as Capital of the Kingdom of Aragon and subsequently, but nothing in its history gave it greater fame than this last defense of the brave citizens of Zaragoza.

The stories of Baylen and Zaragoza gave infinite encouragement to the forces against Napoleon.

The Sage, Jean Paul Richter, stated with glee: "Doubted not that the Germans would one day rise against the French as the Spaniards had done, and that Prussia would revenge its insults and give freedom to Germany."

How thoroughly the prophesy was fulfilled.

Napoleon made a tremendous effort to retain control of Spain for his brother, and in his short stay at Madrid, in trying to popularize his brother's rule, offered to the country several desirable reforms, among which was the abolition of the feudal laws and of the inquisition; this we must grant in the spirit of "giving the devil his due."

I believe it is Tacitus, the Roman historian, who says:

"In no land does the character of the people and the nature of the country help to repair disasters more readily than in Spain."

And whilst the French Emperor thought he had conquered the Peninsula, no sooner had he crossed the Pyrenees than the country rose up at once and the brave mountaineers were again waving the flag of their country.

Wellington's success, aided by the patriots, and even with 370,000 French troops to check the British leader, they failed to do so, and Wellington's prowess was heralded all over Europe and created a marked effect.

The battle of Fuentes d' Onoro was fought by Wellington.

One battle on the south frontier of Portugal by Lord Beresford, and the battle of Barossa by General Graham, in all of which the British were victorious, and the effect produced by these successes discouraged Joseph so that he proposed to his brother his abdication of the Throne of Spain.

In the beginning of January, 1812, Lord Wellington commenced the enterprise of reducing Ciudad Rodriguez. It was intelligently conceived and brilliantly executed. It had been greatly strengthened by the French, but before its fortifications had been improved by them, it had held out against Massena for over a month, although his army consisted of over 100,000 men. Badajoz had gone through the same experience, yet the strongholds were taken by storm.

The two achievements produced consternation and capped the climax of the train of defeats of the French in 1812.

Wellington had now made a great reputation as a successful commander, and Napoleon with his plans for a Russian campaign felt the time had come and proposed terms of peace to London on the basis of the *statu quo*. This did not suit the British Government, and Lord Castlereagh replied, that if the reign of King Joseph were meant by the phrase, "the dynasty actually reigning," he must answer explicitly, that England's engagements to Ferdinand and the Cortes presently governing Spain, rendering her acknowledging him impossible.

Such loyalty did Britain show to the Spanish people, and contrasts so nobly with the unworthy, selfish and deceptive methods constantly used by the arch diplomatist of Europe, he did not answer Britain's retort.

CHAPTER VII.



APOLÉON'S complications with the powers of Europe, and his organization of the Continental System, in order to deprive Great Britain of her commerce with the Continent, now occupied his constant attention. He had become related to the ancient dynasty of the Hapsburgs, and he was at the zenith of his power, and outside of Spain, everything seemed to favor the new Charlemagne, as he then was called. It did seem that with all the great power he wielded, and armies of so many people he controlled, that there would be but a poor chance for Wellington and the Spanish patriots.

But this British General pursued a cautious strategy with an army that was never large enough, although his seasoned troops he regarded, with their steady valor, as more than a match for that number of French.

Whilst the French Emperor was on his fateful campaign into Russia, he received news of the crushing defeat of his favorite marshal, Marmont, on the plain of Salamanca.

Wellington could have made his campaign more efficacious had it not been for the quarrels and jealousies in the Spanish forces, which at several critical occasions had destroyed his opportunities to take the French at a disadvantage.

These independent bands, whilst they harrassed and annoyed the army, could not always be controlled by the British Commander when he needed them.

It was wise and important that the Cortes conferred upon Wellington the command as Generalissimo of the Spanish forces, from acting in irregular and independent bands, with lack of cohesion to the British army and unable at all times to rely on them. By the time the battle of Vittoria had to be fought, he had welded these irregular forces into a fine army organization, and he testified highly as to the noble work the Spanish troops accomplished at this famous victory.

It is one of the most remarkable circumstances in history that France, which had been drained of her best blood and treasure to equip a vast army of 650,000 men for the Russian campaign, and had so often been compelled to make tremendous sacrifices, should still, after that terrible disaster and loss, sustain the Emperor to raise another army to meet the strong coalition made by the allied Governments, to crush the man who had proved himself the scourge of Europe.

There was something wonderfully magnetic in his personality whilst evoking the pride of military glory by her wonderful achievements, yet he had brought France to the depth of distress and almost despair at this period of French history. With all the ability which he showed in organizing another army, to check the progress of the allied armies of Russia, Prussia, Sweden and Great Britain, which were in coalition to crush him, there was great discontent in the interior of France, and the press of which had tried to conceal from the Emperor, but the country was becoming exhausted with the constant drain on her resources, and military ambition ceased to be a panacea for every woe, or an allurements to make every sacrifice.

It is strange that Napoleon did not withdraw his armies from Spain to aid him in the impending struggle with the allies. Joseph still had 150,000 troops, and now that Wellington had been largely reinforced, with his base of supplies at the northern ports, where he could be aided by the British Navy, he was at an advantage and he pushed his army forward with vigor and compassed Joseph at Vittoria, and which proved a most glorious victory for British as well as Spanish arms.

This virtually sealed the fate of French occupation of Spain.

The news of this great disaster to Napoleon gave much encouragement to the allies, and determined Austria, who had been hitherto trying to act as mediator, to join them actively against the French army.

With all this, the Congress at Prague, and the dilatory tactics of the French Emperor, only showed that he meant to have time to organize and train his forces to keep Austria quiet, and attack Russia and Prussia consecutively, and regain his military prestige.

The calamity of the utter route at Vittoria seemed to throw gloom on Napoleon's generals, and the French armies were beginning now to lose heart, and in the actions in North Germany were generally unsuccessful and discouraging. The change of Austria to an active ally to the coalition gave great encouragement to the British, Russian and Prussian governments, increased with the Swedes coming into the allies with an army of 35,000. Napoleon, therefore, became more tractable and disposed to treat; however, the allied operations forced him to the defensive, and the great battle of Leipsig was fought with its three days of carnage. The obstinacy of Napoleon at Leipsig and his signal defeat there terminated his battles for conquest, and his struggles from now on were to protect his own life and the imperial title of France.

France soon called for his abdication. The sacrifices the country had made to support him in his inordinate ambition had gone beyond all reason.

The allied armies who had been on the French frontiers and had magnanimously offered terms to France, made their approach towards Paris.

The British army, which had chased Marshal Soult across the Pyrenees, continued on its march, and after some brilliant maneuvers gained another great victory at Orthiz. Soult's army being scattered to the winds.

Bordeaux received the British army with acclamation, so much had the trend of public opinion changed latterly, and the white cockade was seen everywhere and the enthusiastic cries of "Vive le Roi" showed how faithful this old stronghold of royalty was to its Princes.

Meantime the conference at Chatillon was taken place for a treaty, and its provisions were being arranged. Napoleon, as usual, holding out pertinaciously for advantageous terms, and the treaty that his ministers had accepted he repudiated and continued his offensive tactics.

His temporary successes at this time lost him the valuable opportunity of making a treaty which was most magnanimous to him and advantageous to France. Evidently the Emperor never intended to make peace at Chatillon.

The allies continued their march towards Paris, their course contested most bitterly by Napoleon and his marshals. The capture of Paris followed.

The proposition from Napoleon to treat now was absolutely rejected.

After a council of the allies, it was considered that Napoleon had lost the esteem and confidence of the French Nation, and that the old legitimate rulers of France should again be seated on the French Throne.

The arraignment of Napoleon by the French Senate, which dethroned him, states the reasons clearly and definitely.

A provisional government was formed by them.

DECLARATION OF THE SENATE.

“The conservative Senate, considering that in a constitutional monarchy, the monarch exists only in virtue of a social compact. That Napoleon Bonaparte’s administration for sometime was firm and prudent, but that latterly he has violated his fundamental compact with the French people, especially by raising and levying taxes without the sanction of the law, in direct opposition to the oath which he took on ascending the Throne; that he committed that infraction of the liberties of the people when he had, without cause, prorogued the legislative and suppressed as criminal a report of that body, thereby contesting its title and share in the national representation; that he has undertaken a series of wars of his own authority in violation of the law, which declared that they should be proposed, discussed and promulgated as laws; that he has illegally issued several decrees declaring the penalty of death, especially those of March 3 last, tending to establish as natural a war which sprang only from his immediate ambition; that he has violated the laws of the Constitution by his decrees on state prisons; that he has annihilated the responsibilities of monarchs, confounded all powers and destroyed the independence of the judiciary bodies; that he has trampled under foot the liberty of the press by means of a corrupt and enslaved censorship, and made use of that powerful instrument only to deluge France with false maxims, doctrines favorable to despotism and outrages on foreign governments; that acts and reports of the Senate itself have undergone alteration previous to publication; that instead of reigning conformably to the interest, happiness and glory of the French Nation in terms of his oath, Napoleon has put the finishing stroke to the miseries of the country by refusing to treat with the allies on terms which the nation required him to accept, and which did not compromise the honor of France; that by the abuse which he has made of the resources in men and money entrusted to him, he has effected the ruin of the terms, the depopulation of the country, and everywhere induced famine and contagious pestilence. Considering, in fine, that by all these causes the Imperial Government has ceased to exist and that the wishes of the French call for a state of things of which the first result may be the re-establishment of a general peace and the reunion of France with all the states of the great European family, the Senate declares and decrees as follows:

1. Napoleon Bonaparte is cast down from the Throne and the right of succession is abolished.
2. The French people and army are absolved from their oath of fidelity to him.
3. The present decrees shall be transmitted to the departments and armies and proclaimed immediately in all the quarters of the Capital.

“MONITEUR, 5 April, 1814.”

Such an arraignment as this by the highest legislative body of the French Nation, and to the fact of which all were conversant, was satisfactory to the people generally, who had now become entirely impatient at this constant drain of blood and treasure to gratify the ambition of one individual whose inordinate desires had brought the country to a condition of utter exhaustion.

That the action of the Senate in dethroning Napoleon has been impugned by some as being illegal, and there is no doubt that this of course was to be expected from his partisans, it could be equally declared that Napoleon on first assuming despotic power on his return from Egypt, with all the glamour of a deity, cancelling the power of the Council of Five Hundred with his sword at the head of his grenadiers, was an unscrupulous mode of gaining power in a country which called itself free.

As justification many would point out the use that this power subsequently achieved, viz, the bringing about of civil order and security, and especially the condition of personal liberty which the citizens enjoyed. That Napoleon should have elevated France by his military prowess from an humbled divided and disordered country about to be overrun by its powerful and despotic neighbors, to one of peerless power and strength, the master and dictator of the destinies of the Nations.

His arbitrary action of assuming the imperial crown might therefore also be justified.

The astonishing undertakings of the Emperor which formed a pyramid of such wonderful achievements as the world had never seen, the magic of his presence on nearly all occasions, even snatching victory from defeat, had charmed the fancy and mind of the French people and brought enough glory to them to cover a multitude of shortcomings and hardships. But the country was in a condition of absolute ruin and bankruptcy. No family but what was in mourning for their dead, and so the end of the great tragedy must come.

The marshals surrounding Napoleon felt also the hour had come to recognize the will of the Senate and the inability of the army to continue successfully its operations. The Island of Elba had the honor of receiving the great Commander.

A great mistake on the part of the allies, but the clemency was attributable to the Czar of Russia.

The "hundred days" were not long delayed.

CHAPTER VIII.



ONE WOULD have supposed that the Island of Elba would have afforded opportunities to Napoleon for thought and reflection, and to learn lessons of wisdom from his past experience, and brought about a change of mind and conduct.

He had deluged the continent with blood to extend the limits of France and to carry out his continental system. He had impoverished the exchequer of France and increased the national debt of every nation on the Continent until the whole of Europe was tax-ridden to such a degree as almost

to bring a sense of poverty to every home. With the misery and degradation that was apparent to him on every hand, it would have been natural to suppose that there certainly would be some compunctions of conscience in the wrong he had brought on mankind and in the cause of liberty and the principles of democracy.

He threw the world back many years by his autocratic methods, his unprincipled schemes and his bloodthirsty ambitions, to overcome his enemies in his thirst for power and military glory.

The end justified any means, was his philosophy, and no scruples ever interfered with his unbridled desires.

That in the quiet of the sea-girt Isle of Elba the opportunity was surely offered him of reflecting on the universal wreck and ruin he had brought to Europe and his own afflicted country.

We learn something through the conversations he had with the British Envoy, Col. Sir Neil Campbell.

He bitterly resented the loss of Belgium to France, as he had always conceived that Antwerp ought to be a great emporium of trade, such as London. He termed the Bourbon King Viceroy of England.

He seemed to think the army was still with him outside of the higher officers, and notwithstanding the wrongs he had done to the cause of political freedom, a large majority of the French people were still fascinated by his memory.

He did express himself, saying, "that he was wrong in not making peace at the Congress of Prague; that confidence in his own genius and that of his army led him astray." He expressed himself later that he had heard at Elba, as in a tomb, the verdict of posterity.

But as can be easily seen in surveying his career, he did not stop to consider of the past, the better to plan for the future.

What was daily passing was what interested him and his ever-active mind was still planning—conquest, glory, a world!

The palliations he offered for some of the enormities he had committed during his career were such as the necessities of the cases required and justified in a plausible way to many of the distinguished visitors of rank who visited him at Elba, so that they might be given to the world.

THE HUNDRED DAYS.

His excuses subsequently given for leaving the island were plausible. The fact that the Bourbon Government at Paris failed to provide him with the allowance required of it by the allies, and necessitated his selling his property for necessities, was a very cogent reason.

He feared attempt to assassinate him.

Algerine pirates had threatened to capture him.

He said he had information that the powers were about to transport him to St. Helena.

So he resolved to again face the allies and conquer Europe. A halo of romance seemed to surround him, and his personal presence was irresistible in securing him followers.

The idol of his army, which no disasters seemed to dispel the illusion. The ancient Greeks, had he lived in their day, would have called him a deity.

The history of the hundred days reads like a product of a wild imagination, but it proved a most costly experience to the nations of Europe, who had again to face the problem of having to renew their gigantic efforts to again cage the unconquerable warrior.

All these reasons certainly looked justifiable for his leaving Elba.

Several other reasons had also encouraged Napoleon to return to France.

But still he broke his word with the allies.

The restoration of the Bourbons was not satisfactory to the soldiers, although it seemed pleasing to the people.

The terms granted by the allies were certainly favorable to France.

And the magnanimity and generosity that Great Britain displayed in the giving back to France islands and territory that she had taken from her during the wars, was a piece of magnanimity and unselfishness seldom encountered in history, and this in face of the fact that Napoleon had been the cause of increasing Britain's public debt 600 millions of pounds sterling.

This action raised Great Britain high in the estimation of the Continental powers.

From Napoleon's point of view, with the encouragement he received from France, it was not strange that he should make the effort of his life to regain his power and prestige.

A temporary absence of the British cruisers gave him the opportunity.

His march to Lyons and Paris in some places was an ovation.

His superhuman efforts to organize and consolidate his army as well as to control the legislature.

The retreat of the Bourbons from Paris reads like fiction.

His determination to meet Wellington and his unbounded confidence that he could measure his strength with the Iron Duke successfully shows his invincible character. But he had now found his match.

After all that has been said about the great battle of Waterloo, the most decisive in its consequences of any battle in the history of the world, there is this to say in Napoleon's own words. That "he, Wellington, was as great a General as he was, and had the advantage of having more prudence."

A tribute which the world seemed to confirm.

Wellington's army stood the shock of the repeated charges of his great cavalry and guards like an iron wall until their French strength was expended, and then Wellington charged with his reserves and put them into utter confusion and retreat.

The Prussians came in at this lucky moment and the route became almost a massacre, for Blucher had much to be avenged for.

Napoleon fled from the field. How much grander would his character have stood in history had he delivered up his sword on the field of battle. It would have given lustre to his finished career. But his never-failing confidence that "he who fights and runs away will live to fight another day" seemed to animate him.

His army virtually disappeared.

Grouchy's safe retreat from the Prussians encouraged him to form a nucleus, but Paris and his marshals again dictated his abdication, and the British in order that he should cease to be a pest to Europe, shipped him to the lonely Isle of St. Helena.

At the beginning of his career as Emperor he did much to gain the confidence and admiration of the nation. His policy was moderate and liberal in the internal affairs of France, and with foreign nations he supported a dignity and importance that made him respected abroad.

Had moderation prevailed instead of the lust of conquest which took possession of him, a different history would have been written.

His system of controlling the press and deceiving the people was only worthy of an unscrupulous dictator. Whenever French arms were unfortunate, he managed to conceal it from the people until he could give them some good news with it, and then always distorted. He had so completely prostituted the press that the public could know nothing only through his own bulletins, until the phrase, "lie like a bulletin," became a universal saying.

His crimes he justified by the exigencies of State. His massacres in Syria, the murder of the Duke d' Enghien, and many other deplorable enormities, were unjustifiable in any view and stains his memory forever.

The unlimited extent of slaughter and desolation and human misery by his persistent wars caused him to be looked upon by the nations as a wild beast who had to be caged at all hazards.

CHAPTER IX.

LESSONS.

THE TEACHINGS which this remarkable period give are many.

We can look philosophically over the extraordinary events embraced in it with very mingled reflections as to the good or damage which each exacted on the body politic and the progress of mankind.

As a product of the revolution, Napoleon's career as a servant of the Directory had performed his duties with signal ability, appealing to democratic principles which had given freedom to human thought and action.

His military successes, however, soon inspired him with personal ambitions which became uncontrollable and brought in its train many troubles and evils and the united enmity of European Governments.

The Napoleonic era will stand conspicuous as the most extraordinary in human history, and future generations whilst reading the memorable wars of the Lacedemoneans and other Greeks, Caesar and Tacitus on the Roman and Carthage struggles, the Crusades and other memorable eras will stand aghast at the relation of the meteoric career of the greatest Captain of all times.

There is one great and very special lesson that the Napoleonic wars teach us, and that is, that with all the fearful loss of human life, the terrible desolation

and destruction of property, the misery produced amongst the people, it could all have been avoided had there been an International Court of Justice to which all questions of differences could have been referred for settlement by arbitration.

It is true that with such a character as Napoleon, he might defy any International Court, but the united will of the world could not long be defied.

We may illustrate this by the establishment lately of the Central American Court of Justice, which has no doubt been efficacious in maintaining peace conditions amongst these five republics which have been so often rent with civil strife and revolutions.

In a statement that is made by the President of the Central American Peace Conference at Washington, he says:

"The Central American Court of Justice, the first of its kind that will be established among nations, gives material form to the thought of eminent statesmen and philanthropists who for a long time have been struggling to establish means in consonance with the tendencies of civilization for the settlement of international conflicts. Said court will be a permanent tribunal, which will proceed in the matters that are submitted to it for decision in accordance with the judicial rules of investigation observed by all the judicial tribunals of the civilized world, and shall decide impartially in accordance with the teaching of international law and with a view to a strict and scrupulous termination of the matter.

"Arbitration as the means of settling international difficulties has been the ideal of modern diplomacy; but for its realization in a manner that all people may accept it without reserve, it is indispensable to give it juridic character, which by the nature of its functions belong to it.

"The Central American Republics, upon commencing a new life, relegating to oblivion past errors, persuaded as they are that the cardinal point in their compass ought to be the accomplishment of a positive and great prosperity, have sought in this new conception of arbitration the most powerful support of their desired tranquility, and in order to put it into practice agreed in Washington to establish the Central American Court of Justice.

"To the end of constituting that high tribunal in such a manner that it may be the recipient of the most absolute confidence of those who are to bring to it the solution of their disagreements, it is necessary that the justices who compose it be men of recognized ability and integrity, and in that sense the convention provides that said justices shall be chosen from among the jurists who possess the qualifications which the laws of each country prescribe for the exercise of high judicial office and who enjoy the highest consideration, both because of their moral character and their professional ability."

Organized, therefore, with such a personnel of irreproachable honor, free by reason of the character of the institution which has created it, there is no doubt but that the Central American Court of Justice will be as Article XIII says: "Representative of the national conscience of Central America, and that the people will have nothing to fear upon bringing their reciprocal differences to the final judgment of that conscience." (See Appendix A.)

I believe that the high position which belong to the Central American Court of Justice cannot be presented more clearly. Its members being named by the legislative power of each country, they will owe their office to the national will, conveyed with implicit trust, and they will, therefore, enter upon the exercise of their lofty and humanitarian duties without political compromises that may influence their conduct and surrounded by the highest prerogatives which can be conferred on a citizen within our republican regime, since, as Article X says, on this same principle the International Court of the Hague can provide a solution for this great question of arbitration between nations of all differences.

Much has been done in the past few years to bring about this desirable end and the great meeting in the interest of this movement held at Berlin this summer shows that it is accomplishing some happy results.

I will quote from an admirable report on this question issued by the Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration.

"International arbitration is neither novel nor impractical. In a narrow sense, it means the submission by two or more nations of a difference to be determined by a disinterested party, usually a prominent individual, sometimes a number of individuals. In this simple form, arbitration settled no less than 198 international disputes during the nineteenth century, a number now increased to more than 240. The average during the past twenty years has been about six cases a year. The United States has been a party to more than 60 cases, Great Britain to more than 70, and thirty-five other nations have been parties to arbitrations. The Alabama Claims dispute between the United States and Great Britain is a well-known example of the class of cases so disposed of.

"Since the first Hague Conference in 1888, the term international arbitration has been more broadly construed to include the work of 'mixed commissions' and 'commissions of inquiry' as well as the development of international law expressed in international tribunals and courts.

"Notable achievements under these heads were the settlement of the Alaskan boundary question by a mixed commission, and of the North Sea (Dogger Bank) incident by a commission of inquiry.

"The first Hague Conference framed the great Convention for the Peaceful Adjustment of International Differences and created the Hague Tribunal, a panel from which arbitrators may be drawn for particular cases. This tribunal has determined four international controversies, and the United States and Great Britain are about to refer to it the long-standing Newfoundland Fisheries dispute.

"The second Hague Conference in 1907, despite current impressions to the contrary, measured a great advance. It was the first time in history that representatives of practically all nations had met to consider the maintenance of peace—for only twenty-six nations had participated in the first conference. It unanimously declared that henceforth no nation may use force to collect debts from another nation without first offering to arbitrate. It provided, also unanimously, for an international court of prize, to which recourse may be had from decisions of national courts. It revised and improved the Hague Convention of 1899, gave greater power to commissions of inquiry and provided

that either of two differing nations may publicly ask that the difference be referred to the Hague Tribunal. It practically made itself a periodic body by resolving that a third conference should be held at or about 1915. And as, perhaps, its greatest service, it prepared and adapted a complete plan for the organization and procedure of a real international court of justice to supplement the Hague Tribunal. It did not determine a method for apportioning the judges in the court but left the matter in such form that two or more nations (no number being specified) may on their own initiative set the court in operation by simply appointing judges, other nations being free to join in the same way, whenever so disposed. Secretary Root is quoted as being confident that through ordinary diplomatic channels the international court, the dream of mankind for ages, will be a reality before the third Hague Conference. While the Hague Conference did not adopt a general treaty of arbitration, it unanimously indorsed the principle, and thirty-five of forty-four nations were ready to negotiate such a treaty.

"It is significant that prior to the close of the second Hague Conference treaties or arbitration between different nations had been negotiated to the number of 54, and that since the Conference the United States has negotiated and the Senate has ratified similar treaties with 12 leading powers, to which it is reported treaties with Germany and with China will soon be added. While most of these treaties exclude questions affecting 'national honor' they nevertheless cover a broad field. This exception of 'national honor' will probably not be entirely eliminated until a public sentiment, based on the actual achievements of arbitration shall have been created strong enough to assure just treatment of such questions by an international court."

In this world's great altruistic movement for the betterment of the human family, I trust that it is in the purview of this great International Congress, celebrating as it does an important era in Spain's history, to take some action and give some recognition to a movement whose success will preclude the possibility of a recurrence of the terrible experience through which the country passed 100 years ago, a movement that is destined to completely metamorphose international conditions and bring more happiness and contentment to the human family and this Centennial as a milestone to mark Spain's progress and happier conditions by the return of another century will congratulate herself that she was one of the nations who led in the thought of the world that nations should follow the example of individuals, to settle their disputes before a court of justice instead of by the sword.

Spain, with her illustrious past, will yet again make glorious history in the advancing progress of the world, and may be a power for good that will be felt again as one of the first of the Nations.

Her enlightened Statesmen, freed from the trammels of the strong reactionary influences that surround them, will steer her into a high and noble destiny with purposes wisely directed for the education and happiness of her chivalrous children, will yet mark for her an era of greatness. And the noble aspirations of her youthful and sagacious constitutional Monarch, guided by the wisdom and council of his charming Queen, will make for the glory of the country and what her name stands for—VICTORIA!

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